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THESIS

FORECASTING ATMOSPHERIC VISIBILITY OVER
THE SUMMER NORTH ATLANTIC USING THE
PRINCIPAL DISCRIMINANT METHOD

by

Kristine C. Elias

March 1985

Thesis Advisor:

R. J. Renard

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Forecasting Atmospheric Visibility Over the Summer North Atlantic Using the Principal Discriminant Method

bу

Kristine C. Elias Lieutenant Commander, United States Navy A.B., University of California, Riverside, 1973

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN METEOROLOGY AND OCEANOGRAPHY

from the

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This report describes the application and evaluation of the Principal Discriminant Method (PDM) in the forecasting of horizontal visibility over selected physically homogeneous areas of the North Atlantic Ocean. The main focus of this study is to propose a possible model output statistics (MOS) approach to operationally forecast visibility at the 00-hour model initialization time and the 24-hour and 48-hour model forecast projections, using as data the period 15 May--7 July 1983. The technique utilized involves the manipulation of observed visibility and the Fleet Numerical Oceanography Center's Navy Operational Global Atmospheric Prediction System (NOGAPS) model output parameters. Both two-and three-category visibility models were examined. The resulting zero-and one-class errors as well as the threat scores from the PDM model were compared with those obtained from maximum probability and natural regression studies. For the majority of the experiments performed, PDM was outperformed by the other techniques, although one trial run of an adjusted PDM technique gave results very similar to those of the maximum probability techniques.

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I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The Model Output Statistics (MOS) technique involves the processing of atmospheric parameters output from numerical weather prediction models (predictors), along with observed data, to produce forecast algorithms of meteorological parameters (predictands). The predictands are either operationally important parameters not forecast by numerical models (e.g., visibility, cloud amount, ceiling) or model output parameters whose predictive skills are improved (e.g., surface wind, temperature) due to partial correction of numerical model bias and/or scale.

The National Weather Service (NWS) uses a linear, least-squares regression model to generate empirical forecast equations. This MOS technique has demonstrated operationally usable skill in forecasting numerous weather elements at land locations throughout the world [Best and Pryor, 1983]. Both the United States Air Force and Navy have made limited use of the NWS model for selected land areas around the world. The Navy has attempted to forecast open-ocean fog and visibility using linear regression equations, with the resultant skill levels exceeding persistence, climatology and those of the NWS as well. However, these limited experiments produced results considered only marginally useful for operational situations

[Aldinger,1979; Yavorsky, 1980; Selsor, 1980; Koziara, et al, 1983; Renard and Thompson, 1984]. Undoubtedly, this performance level is due, in part, to the lack of 'calibrated' fog and visibility observations. At sea, weather observers lack the reference points necessary to accurately estimate the visibility.

Because of the potential for success demonstrated by the above cited experiments, the Navy began development of an MOS program in the spring of 1983 to forecast operationally important air/ocean parameters over all ocean areas in both hemispheres. Horizontal visibility was selected as the first parameter to be investigated due to its importance to the mariner. Because linear regression techniques over land areas (NWS, 1960--date) and the North Pacific Ocean (Navy, late 1970's) demonstrated considerably less-than-perfect results, other statistical methods were proposed to determine if a better one could be found.

Preisendorfer (1983 a,b,c) proposed three strategies, two based on maximum probability and one based on natural regression. Lowe (1984a) proposed innovative threshold techniques to be applied with the linear regression approach. All of these methods were developed, applied and tested on North Pacific and North Atlantic Ocean areas by Karl (1984) and on additional North Atlantic Ocean areas by Diunizio (1984a) in their investigations of visibility.

Wooster (1984) applied the same techniques to cloud amount and ceiling height parameters.

This study presents a Principal Discriminant Method

(PDM) of statistical analysis as developed for the MOS

problem by Preisendorfer (1984). Significance testing

methods proposed by Mr. Paul Lowe, Naval Environmental

Prediction Research Facility, and investigated by Diunizio

(1984b), were also utilized. These results are compared

with results obtained from the aforementioned methodologies.

In the following discussion, a sufficient number of terms and symbols are defined to allow readers without strong statistical backgrounds to understand the results. However, for a proper understanding of the Preisendorfer (1984) methodology, readers are encouraged to examine Appendix A for a detailed discussion. Details on the significance testing [Diunizio, 1984b] are found in Appendix B.

^{*}Conversation, and unpublished notes.

II. OBJECTIVES AND APPROACH

The objective of this study is to determine if the Principal Discriminant Method (PDM), applied to discrete values of model output and derived parameters, can improve upon the forecasting of horizontal marine atmospheric visibility when compared to the Preisendorfer natural regression and maximum probability approaches. The PDM approach is outlined as follows:

- a. define visibility groups, categorized in a way which relates most closely to operational use at sea.
- b. develop and apply the Preisendorfer (1984) PDM to three North Atlantic Ocean physically homogeneous areas [Lowe, 1984b], using 15 May through 7 July 1983 Navy Operational Global Atmospheric Prediction System (NOGAPS) predictor data.
- c. compare and contrast the individual results with those Preisendorfer statistical methodologies previously explored by Karl (1984) and Diunizio (1984a).
- d. Based on a. to c. above, present an interim recommendation for an optimal statistical approach to forecasting horizontal visibility in the North Atlantic Ocean as a function of prediction time and homogeneous area.

III. DATA

A. VISIBILITY OBSERVATIONS AND SYNOPTIC CODE

Horizontal visibility observations taken from seagoing platforms are reported as values of ten standardized World Meteorological Organization (WMO) synoptic weather codes (Appendix C). These codes range in value from 90, which corresponds to visibility less than 50 m, to 99, which corresponds to visibility equal to or greater than 50 km. Human observational error and inexactness in measuring visibility at sea necessitate a reduction of visibility classification categories for prediction purposes.

1. Three-Category Case

Initially, a three visibility category classification scheme was considered.

Visibility Category	Synoptic Code	Visibility Range
I	90-94	<2 km
II	95 - 96	≥2 km to <10 km
III	97-99	≥10 km

The above scheme is the same as that used by Karl (1984) and Diunizio (1984a); it is based upon the following at-sea operational criteria followed by the U. S. Navy.

^{1. 10} km (5 n mi)--U.S. Navy aircraft carrier at-sea flight recovery operations change from visual (VFR) to controlled (IFR) approach guidelines [Department of the Navy, 1979].

2. 2 km (1 n mi) -- the sounding of reduced visibility signals for all vessels operating in international waters. The term "reduced visibility" is not specifically defined in the International Regulations for Preventing Collisions at Sea, 1972. The distance of 1 n mi is generally considered to be the governing operational distance.

2. Two-Category Case

In the past [Renard and Thompson, 1984], forecasting skill for category II has proved to be minimal. In the preliminary work for this study, it was noted that the predictor means of all three category subsets, as a function of associated predictand values, were not always well separated. Without good separation, a good statistical forecast is not possible regardless of the method used. Ιt was noted however, that even though not all three means were well separated, at least two of the means were well separated from each other. This finding suggested that a two-category case might be better supported by the data. If the two-category case showed better data support than the three-category case, then enhanced results might be expected. To test this hypothesis, two different two-category data sets were created for experimentation. The two cases are:

Case X

Visibility Category	Synoptic Code	Visibility Range
IX	90-95	<4 km
IIX	96 - 99	≥4 km

Case Y

Visibility Category	Synoptic Code	Visibility Range
IY	90-94	<2 km
IIY	95 - 99	≥2 km

B. NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN DATA

1. Area

The North Atlantic Ocean, from 0° to 80° N latitude, was divided into homogeneous oceanic areas by Lowe (1984b), using a statistical cluster analysis technique. The homogeneous areas evaluated in this study are identified as areas 2, 3W and 4 which represent areas of moderate, frequent and sparse occurrences of poor visibility, respectively (Fig. 1).

2. Time Period

Data from mid-May 1983 to mid-July 1983 were combined to form a more extensive data set, hereafter referred to as FATJUNE 1983. The FATJUNE period was selected as the initial data set for statistical experimentation because of the climatologically high frequency of occurrence of poor visibility observations for many areas of the North Atlantic Ocean during this period. Only the 1200 GMT synoptic ship report data, corresponding

^{*}However, NOGAPS predictor data for the period 15 May--7 July 1983 only were available for the study.

to daylight conditions, were used in this preliminary study of the method.

For the purpose of this study, TAU-00 generally represents six-hour model forecast fields. However, temperature, geopotential height and wind are model initialization fields. TAU-24 and TAU-48 are defined as 24-h and 48-h model forecast fields. All of the above are valid at 1200GMT. TAU-00, TAU-24 and TAU-48 model output parameters (predictors) are employed in the 00-h, 24-h and 48-h forecast schemes, respectively. Summaries of the number of observations in each visibility category of the dependent and independent data sets, as a function of homogeneous area and prediction time for FATJUNE 1983, are contained in Tables I-IV.

3. Synoptic Weather Reports

All synoptic visibility observations (predictand data) for this study were provided by the Naval Oceanography Command Detachment (NOCD), Asheville, North Carolina which is co-located with the National Climatic Data Center (NCDC). The observations which contained systematic observer error or were obviously erroneous, as determined from the data quality indicators provided with the data, were deleted from the working data sets.

4. Predictor Parameters

Fifty TAU-00, fifty-four TAU-24 and fifty-four TAU-48 model output predictors (MOP's) were provided by the

Fleet Numerical Oceanography Center (FNOC), Monterey, California. The parameters are generated by their current operational atmospheric prediction model, NOGAPS. All MOP's were interpolated from model grid coordinates to synoptic ship report positions using a linear interpolation scheme. In addition to the initial group of MOP's, thirteen derived parameters representing calculated quantities, such as parameter gradients and products, were included as potential predictors. Of the available predictor parameters, fifteen were eliminated from consideration because 1) the MOP lacked a physical linkage to the visibility predictand, and/or 2) a lack of significant digits (lost during the transfer of the FNOC data to the main computer center mass storage system) rendered the particular MOP useless. A list of all TAU-00, TAU-24 and TAU-48 MOP's available to the experiments are included in Appendix E.

C. DATA SETS

1. Standarization

NOGAPS analysis/forecast parameters are output in a large variety of units/scales. To eliminate the effect of different units of the various predictors on the Principal Discriminant Method (particularly the part using principal component analysis), the data were standardized before the method was applied. Given x_1, \ldots, x_n members in each predictor group, the standardized members y_1, \ldots, y_n are

given by
$$y_j = \frac{x_j - \overline{x}}{s}$$

where

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}, \text{ the mean}$$

$$s = \left[\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{j} - \overline{x})^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}, \text{ the unbiased estimate of the standard deviation.}$$

In this way all units were removed, the data centered at 0, and the variance of each of the data sets became 1.

2. <u>Dependent/Independent Data Sets</u>

Since FATJUNE 1983 was the only data set available for this study, the data were divided into two groups. Approximately two-thirds of the data became the dependent set upon which the model was based. This set is also referred to as the <u>training set</u>. The remaining one-third of the data became the independent set on which the model was tested. This set is also referred to as the <u>testing set</u>.

To insure that no biases existed in the sets, each training-testing set pair was created by use of a uniform random number generator. The given data sets were randomly split and then checked to insure they represented the initial population mean within a 95% confidence interval.

Once created, these sets were used consistently throughout all model runs.

IV. PROCEDURES

A. TERMS AND SYMBOLS

The following terms and symbols are used throughout the remainder of this thesis and are briefly defined here to assist the reader. For more definitive mathematical expressions of potential errors, consult Appendix A.

Mathematical expressions for class errors, threat scores and adjusted class errors may be found in Appendix D.

- 1. A0--the estimated probability (based on actual predictions using the testing set) of a zero-class visibility category forecast error (e.g., if visibility category I is forecast, it is also observed).
- 2. A1--the estimated probability (based on actual predictions using the testing set) of a one-class visibility category forecast error (e.g., if visibility category I is forecast and category II is observed).
- 3. A2--the estimated probability (based on actual predictions using the testing set) of a two-class visibility category forecast error (e.g., if visibility category I is forecast and category III is observed).
- 4. PAO--the estimated probability (based on the training set) of a zero-class visibility category forecast error.
- 5. PA1--the estimated probability (based on the training set) of a one-class visibility category error. (PA2 is defined similarly.)
- 6. Potential skill scores--(PAO,PA1 above) may be interpreted as follows. Randomly partition a data set (such as FATJUNE 1983) many times into training-testing set pairs. Fit probability distributions to the category subsets of the

training set as described in PDM. Then produce PAO, PA1 values (using the training set) and actual AO, A1 values (using the testing set). Repeat this for all the training-testing set pairs. Take the average of all PAO values and all AO values. In the limit of a sufficiently large number of partitions of the data set, these averages will tend to agree. Similarly for PA1, A1, and PA2, A2.

- 7. Correlation coefficient -- a numerical measure of the relationship between one predictor and another. The value of the correlation coefficient ranges from -1 for negative correlation to +1 for positive correlation. The larger the absolute value of the correlation coefficient, the more closely are the predictors correlated.
- 8. P-value--the result of a two-sided significance test on separate variance t-test statistics. This gives a measure of the separation of the data into different visibility categories.
- 9. TS1--threat score for visibility category I computed from a contingency table.
- 10. Maximum probability strategy--choosing forecast visibility category based upon the highest conditional probability of the predictand categories for a given a predictor interval.
 - a. MAXPROB I--designation of a maximum probability strategy in which ties of the highest conditional probabilities in a predictor interval are resolved by the generation of a random number
 - b. MAXPROB II--designation of a maximum probability strategy in which ties of the highest conditional probabilities for a given predictor interval are resolved by assigning the lowest visibility category, of those ties, as the forecast category.
- 11. Natural regression strategy--choosing forecast visibility categories based upon the statistical average of the conditional probabilities of visibility for a given predictor interval.
- 12. Functional dependence. This is a measure of the stochastic dependence of one predictor upon another. Functional dependence is an estimate of the probability that one of the predictors will change

when the other changes. High functional dependence values between one already selected predictor and another potential predictor indicates that little additional information beyond the selected predictor is possible. The specific derivation and mathematical description of the concept of "functional dependence" is discussed in greater depth by Preisendorfer (1983c).

- 13. Root-sum-squared functional dependence. The functional dependence of a predictor on all predictors already included in the developmental model. It is equal to the square-root of the sum of the squares of the individual functional dependence values.
- 14. AAO--adjusted AO. A contingency table statistic which removes the influence of the most frequent visibility category in a set of data (similar to a normalized value).
- 15. CE--class error parameter defined as AO + 2A1 used as the primary aid in identifying the first predictor in the Preisendorfer (1983a,b,c) PR models.
- 16. PP--the potential predictability of visibility by any given predictor.

B. COMPUTER PROGRAMS

Four computer programs were developed to test the proposed Preisendorfer (1984) Principal Discriminant Method (PDM) methodology. The programs are on file in the Department of Meteorology, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, California 93943.

- 1. A program to standardize the data and create training and testing sets for homogeneous areas, depending on whether the two-or three-category strategy was in use.
- 2. A program to compute correlation coefficients between chosen and unchosen predictors, sorting them from low to high values.

- 3. A program to compute PAO, PA1, AO and A1 values for each predictor and to check the PAO values for significance against chance.
- 4. A program to compute PAO, PA1, AO and A1 values for two or more predictors using binary decomposition. This program also computes contingency tables and threat scores.

C. PREISENDORFER PDM METHODOLOGY

1. Determination of the First Predictor

Selecting the first predictor is a two-step process. The first step involves computing the initial statistics (PAO, PA1) for each predictor. Secondly, based on output from BMDP Statistical Software program P7D [University of California, 1983], the average P-value for each predictor is computed and these values are ranked from low to high. The low values indicate better separability of the category populations. Therefore, the first predictor chosen is the one with the smallest averaged P-value. If more than one predictor shares the same low P-value, then of those predictors, the one with the highest PAO value is selected as the first predictor.

2. Choosing the Second and Subsequent Predictors

The prospective second predictor in the model is determined from its correlation coefficient with the already chosen first predictor. The prospective second predictor has the smallest absolute value of the correlation coefficient. Whether it will ultimately be chosen as the second predictor depends on the following:

- a. PAO has increased, and
- b. PA1 has decreased or remained constant, and
- c. the averaged P-value is significant, i.e., less than .05.

If the prospective predictor cannot meet these criteria, then the next least correlated predictor is tried until all predictors have been exhausted.

This process is repeated for the multi-predictor stage until the model is complete.

3. Terminating the Selection of Predictors

Model development continues until <u>any one</u> of the following four conditions is met:

- a. no more predictors remain to be considered, or
- b. PAO and/or P-scores are no longer significant with respect to the null hypothesis, or
- c. criteria required to add additional predictors cannot be met.

Once the model development is complete, actual zero-and one-class errors (AO,A1) are computed using the independent data set. The resulting PAO, PA1, AO and A1 values provide the measurement statistics on which the usefulness of the model is based.

D. PREISENDORFER (PR) MODEL

This model represents the application of the Preisendorfer (1983a,b,c) methodology (PR) explored by Karl (1984) and Diunizio (1984a). Karl's study provides specific details on the method and readers interested in a

more thorough presentation may consult it. This discussion is presented as a prelude to comparing results of the PR model to the Preisendorfer (1984) PDM model of this study.

As with the PDM model, the PR model utilizes NOGAPS model output and derived parameters as potential predictors in constructing a developmental model, based upon the dependent training data set, which provides the structure by which the model is tested and evaluated. (However, as applied by Karl and Diunizio, the data sets were not formed randomly nor were the means of the sets constrained to be representative of the entire population from which they were Instead, the visibility category groups were constrained to show similar percentages, for both the independent and dependent data sets.) The range of values of these predictors is partitioned into discretized equally populous predictor intervals ("cells") and conditional probabilities of the predictand are calculated according to the three previously defined VISCAT's. There are three separate strategies for determining the VISCAT to be identified with each predictor value. These strategies are MAXPROB I and MAXPROB II based on maximum probability, and a natural regression approach.

The sizes of the equally populous predictor intervals are varied from four to ten. An optimal first predictor is selected, which meets (in order) one of the following requirements:

- a. the lowest CE value of all the potential predictors, or
- b. the highest PP value of all potential predictors.

After selecting a first predictor for each of the equally populous intervals, the corresponding VISCAT I, II and III threat and AO scores are calculated for both dependent and independent data sets from the MAXPROB II strategy. Then the optimal equally populous predictor interval is selected such that it is the smallest interval to maximize the dependent data set's adjusted AO and independent data set's adjusted VISCAT I threat score (Appendix D).

Next, a functional dependence test of the first predictor against the remaining potential predictors is run. Subsequent predictors are selected only if:

- a. the AO value increased over that at the preceding level, and
- b. the selected predictor must have the lowest functional dependence and root-sum-square functional dependence of all the remaining potential predictors.

After completing the predictor selection stage, Monte Carlo significance testing is performed to see if the results are significant compared to random chance. Functional dependence/root-sum-square functional dependence, AO and A1 statistics are calculated for 100 randomly generated sets to determine the 5 and 96 percentile points of A1 and AO, denoted as 'A1(05)', 'AO(96)', respectively. The developmental model results are considered to be

significant if:

- a. A0 is greater than or equal to A0(96), and
- b. A1 is less than or equal to A1(05), and
- c. the functional dependence value for a selected predictor is less than functional dependence 96 percentile level FD(96) (determined by the Monte Carlo procedure, above).

Model development continues until the fifth predictor level when computer storage limitations preclude further addition of predictors. Once complete, contingency tables of forecast versus observed visibility category are constructed for both dependent and independent data sets. Threat and skill scores are computed and compared.

E. THE PDM VS. PR METHODS

The PDM method and the PR methods can be shown to be equivalent in the discrete setting; it is in the non-discrete setting that they differ by virtue of fitting one or the other with analytic versions of discrete probabilities. The MAXPROB approaches make a prediction based on the probability distribution of the categories for a given predictor value, whereas the PDM method discriminates between the probabilities of the categories in a predictor space. In the PDM method, analytic functions are fitted to the category subsets of predictor space and comparisons are made between these probabilities at each given predictor value. Thus, more continuous information is available when the data are sparse in this method than with

the MAXPROB approach (although the latter, too, may be fitted with analytic probability models). Both of these methods should have an advantage over more traditional linear regression techniques whenever the data shows nonlinear rather than linear trends over the predictor space, since these methods would tend to follow the curve of the data, instead of trying to fit a straight line (or hyperplane) to them. The more predictor categories that are used and the more nonlinear the predictand/predictor relation, the greater is the anticipated advantage of PDM over linear regression.

V. RESULTS

The results of the Principal Discriminant Method (PDM) experiments, as outlined in Chapter IV and Appendix A, are presented herein. They are arranged by oceanic homogeneous area and model output period. Fig. 1 displays the individual oceanic homogeneous areas for FATJUNE 1983.

Tables I through IV identify the number of observations in each visibility category by prediction interval (i.e., TAU) and homogeneous area.

The results are further clarified by the corresponding figures in Appendix G, which provide comparisons of PAO and dependent and independent AO scores versus the number of predictors chosen for that particular data set. The models for each set terminated due to established model constraints and not due to computer system storage restrictions. Note that dependent AO scores were not available at the first predictor level due to programming time and constraints. Future experiments could include this information. Thus, the dependent AO data start with the second predictor. The chosen predictors are listed in the order of selection. Contingency tables resulting after the selection of the final predictor are included for both dependent and independent sets. In general, independent AO (testing) scores are lower than the dependent (training) AO scores.

Even though the training and testing sets are representative of the same population, their points are scattered differently. This difference, in general, leads to a decrease in the AO scores from the dependent (training) set to the independent (testing) set. However, in a number of cases, the independent AO score is higher than the PAO score at the first predictor level. Likewise, the dependent AO score is higher than the PAO score at the second predictor level for some cases. Although, on average, one would expect the reverse to be true, the scatter of the individual test scores could occasionally lead to higher AO scores than PAO scores. The steady decline of AO scores for the first few predictors is also a common occurrence. While the PAO score continues its steady ascent (as required by the method to justify the addition of the next predictor) the AO scores shows more erratic behavior, exhibiting the instability of the method. However, when the criteria test was changed, as will be described later, the resulting AO values show a closer relationship to the PAO scores and hence greater stability. Stability is desired in a model or else its forecasts are of little value. To determine exactly why the method is stable or unstable, carefully controlled experiments would have to be performed with artificial data sets.

When comparing the results of the PDM model to the maximum probability and natural regression strategies of the

PR models, it was noted that the PR models provided higher scores in almost every case for all scoring techniques. This difference may be due to the composition of the data sets themselves, the separation of the data into training-testing pairs, some aspect of the methodology or a programming error. However, without conducting experiments on carefully constructed artificial data sets it would be impossible at this point to state a conclusive reason for the difference. One PDM experiment which was conducted at the end of the research did give comparable results to the PR methods and will be discussed in more detail later as will any other exceptions to the general finding stated above. Specific numerical values from the work of Karl (1984) and Diunizio (1984a), along with the corresponding PDM results, are presented in Table V.

A. NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN, AREA 2

Area 2 encompasses a geographic region extending from the southeastern tip of Newfoundland, across the North Atlantic Ocean to the eastern coast of England, north/northeast to include most of Iceland, and back to the Canadian coast north of Newfoundland (Fig. 1).

1. Area 2, TAU-00

Results for this case are shown in Fig. 6. Five predictors were selected. The dependent AO score rises slightly between predictors two and three, and then roughly

parallels the independent AO score. The independent AO score does not show an increase over its initial value until the addition of the fifth predictor. The PDM model outperforms the PR model in the following scores (Table V):

- a. TS2 scores for both dependent and independent sets are higher than for either MAXPROB I or MAXPROB II, thus showing better skill in forecasting VISCAT II.
- b. The TS12 score is higher for the dependent set than either MAXPROB I or MAXPROB II.

2. Area 2, TAU-24

A variety of experiments were performed on this case. In addition to the standard application of the PDM techniques afforded the other cases, two additional three-category experiments and a two-category experiment were performed, as detailed in paragraphs a, b, and c below.

a. Set Composition Experiments

To determine the effect of the random composition of training/testing set pairs on the results, three distinct sets (2(A,B,C)) were created.

Sets 2(A,B,C) follow a similar pattern for the PAO scores, except that sets 2(B) and 2(C) could not support more than five predictors, while the model for set 2(A) finally terminated with the seventh predictor (Fig. 7). The first five predictors were the same in all three cases. The dependent AO scores (Fig. 8) follow a different pattern in each case (one (A) declining to predictor four and then increasing and decreasing once more, one (B) declining

steadily, and one (C) declining to predictor three and then increasing and decreasing once more) which is fairly well paralleled by the independent AO scores (Fig. 9). Ideally, the curves in Figs. 8 and 9 should be as closely spaced as those in Fig. 7. Presumably, these scattered curves are showing giving information about the noise inherent in the observed visibility data sets. Also, they may indicate that PAO, PAI must be redefined so that they may more realistically anticipate these scatterings of the AO, AI scores. Separate figures for each set are found in Figs. 10, 11 and 12.

The PDM vs. PR results found for area 2, TAU-00 hold true at TAU-24 also.

b. Criteria Experiments

To determine the effect of altering the criteria for splitting data swarms in predictor space during the decomposition phase, two methods were tried. The first entailed changing the critical λ value from $\lambda(96)$ to $\lambda(98)$. The second eliminated Monte Carlo methods entirely and created a new value, λ' , where λ' is the ratio of the largest eigenvalue (associated with the data swarm's covariance matrix) to the average of the remaining eigenvalues. For the λ' experiments, the set was split if $\lambda'>2$.

The criteria tests, which were all performed on set 2(A), show that changing the critical value from $\lambda(96)$

to $\lambda(98)$ leaves the PAO pattern basically unchanged. (Note that the same seven predictors were used in each of the criteria experiments.) The pattern for the λ' curve is much different, exhibiting a slower rise to the sixth predictor and then a large jump at the end, surpassing the results of the other criteria tests (Fig. 13). The major difference is in the behavior of the dependent and independent AO scores (Figs. 14 and 15). The λ (96) test curve in Fig. 14 shows a sharp decline in the dependent AO score to the fourth predictor, an even sharper rise at the fifth predictor and decline thereafter. These scores are mirrored by the lower scoring independent A0's in Fig. 15. Both sets of scores are considerably less than the PAO scores of Fig. 13. The $\lambda(98)$ test gives a more stable version of the same pattern. Unlike the first two tests, the λ' test produces dependent AO scores in Fig. 14 quite similar to Fig. 13's PAO score through predictor six, with independent scores following a roughly similar pattern without a major loss in zero-error skill. These results show much greater stability than for any other experiments conducted and thus show the most promise for a continued investigation of the PDM method. The dependent and independent AO scores for the λ' version of PDM are comparable to those of the PR methods. Some of the skill scores are higher for PDM and some for PR. The point here is that "fine tuning" the criteria cut-off (from $\lambda' > 2.0$ to some other value) could result in superior

scores overall. The $\lambda(98)$ and λ' cases are treated individually in Figs. 16 and 17. Once again, in comparing the curves in Figs. 16 and 17, we see that the λ' version of PDM produces much more stable and somewhat higher scores than the $\lambda(98)$ version.

c. Two-Category Experiments

The two-category cases (Chapter III.A.2) provide quite different final results when compared with each other, even though the general pattern was not much different between Case X and Case Y(A). (Note that there are three versions of Case Y, i.e., Y(A,B,C). All comparisons between Cases X and Y were done with the Y(A) data set.) The results for Case X are shown in Fig. 18. The model terminated at the fifth predictor level with the same five predictors as for the other Area 2, TAU-24 cases. Both dependent and independent AO scores decline through predictor number three, then slowly increase to a level much below their respective initial AO scores.

The three Case Y sets exhibit the same similarities in the PAO scores as the three-category cases (Fig. 19). Again, the AO scores (Figs. 20 and 21) tend to show a pattern of decline followed by increasing scores. However, in these two-category cases, the independent AO scores are very close to the dependent AO scores and they are considerably higher than for the three-category

cases. Individual results for each case are presented in Figs. 22, 23 and 24.

Case X does not show AO scores appreciably higher than the AO scores from the three-category case. This might indicate that the data do not support the Case X VISCAT divisions any more than for the three-category case. However, Case Y does show significantly higher AO scores than the three-category case. This is more in line with the expected result; expected since it ought to be easier to forecast for two categories than for three under any circumstances. This result seems to indicate that the Case Y VISCAT divisions are supported by the available data, i.e., that it may be more feasible for on-board observers to discern between less than or greater than 2 km visibility, than less than or greater than 4 km visibility.

3. Area 2, TAU-48

Results for this case are shown in Fig. 25. Four predictors were selected. The dependent AO scores stay virtually constant for all predictors. The independent AO scores show a continuous decline with each additional predictor. The PDM shows higher dependent threat scores and an independent TS2 score when compared to MAXPROB I.

B. NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN, AREA 3W

Area 3W borders the United States' eastern seaboard from the vicinity of Cape Charles, Virginia to the southeastern

tip of Newfoundland. The area encompasses a large portion of the Georges Banks region and extends to approximately 45° W longitude (Fig. 1).

1. Area 3W, TAU-00

Results for this case are shown in Fig. 26. Five predictors were chosen. Once again, both dependent and independent AO scores decline until the addition of the fifth predictor, at which point they surpass their initial values.

2. Area 3W, TAU-24

The results for this case are shown in Fig. 27.

Three predictors were selected. In this case, the independent AO score increase with the addition of each predictor, while the dependent AO score decreases. This pattern is not seen in any other case.

3. Area 3W, TAU-48

The results for this case are shown in Fig. 28. Seven predictors were chosen. The dependent and independent AO scores decline until the addition of the fifth predictor where they reach their maximums. The sixth predictor shows another decline and the seventh an increase. The independent TS2 score in the PDM model equals that of the PR model.

C. NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN, AREA 4

Area 4 encompasses a broad region of the North Atlantic Ocean which is generally to the south of area 2 and east and southeast of area 3W. This area's southern border reaches to the northeastern tip of Portugal and extends northward through the English Channel to encompass the southern portion of the North Sea (Fig. 1).

1. Area 4, TAU-00

The results for this case are shown in Fig. 29.

Only two predictors were chosen for this model. The independent AO score declines after the addition of the second predictor. The dependent AO score shows no trend since only one value was available.

2. Area 4, TAU-24

The results for this case are shown in Fig. 30.

Four predictors were chosen. The dependent and independent AO scores declined until the addition of the fourth predictor. At that point, they are larger than at their initial predictor stage. The dependent and independent results are almost identical which is a rare result. The PDM model shows higher scores for all dependent threat scores compared to MAXPROB I and the independent TS2 score from MAXPROB I.

3. Area 4, TAU-48

The results for this case are shown in Fig. 31. Two predictors were chosen. The independent AO score increases

from the first to the second predictor. No trend is available for the dependent AO score.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. CONCLUSIONS

The primary objective of this study is to evaluate the Principal Discriminant Method (PDM) [Preisendorfer, 1984], to compare those results to the maximum probability and natural regression schemes [Preisendorfer, 1983a,b,c] examined by Karl (1984) and Diunizio (1984a), and to propose a viable statistical forecasting scheme suitable for eventual employment in an operational U. S. Navy marine visibility MOS forecasting system. In general, the PDM model, using the $\lambda(96)$ criteria for decomposing sets, was outperformed in all measures of effectiveness by all of the PR schemes.

However, the version of the PDM model which used the λ' criterion for splitting predictor category sets during decomposition showed very promising results (cf., 2b in V.A. and Table V). The AO/A1 scores for both dependent and independent sets were very close to those of the PR models. Perhaps, this is because the λ' criterion is a better judge of the geometry of the data sets than the Monte Carlo λ (96) criterion. The result is that the information contained in the data set is more readily available in the λ' method than for the other predictor space category splitting methods.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are offered to future researchers:

- 1. The decision criteria for splitting data swarms in the decomposition phase need further examination. Indeed, it is the novel use of principal component analysis for this purpose that distinguishes the present discriminant method from other such methods in the literature. The λ' criterion appears to be a step in the right direction (note 2b in V.A.). Further research should center on determining the best value against which to test the λ value, or still other ways of splitting the overly-elongated category subsets of predictor space.
- 2. Create carefully controlled artificial data sets on which to apply all of the Preisendorfer models (MAXPROB, natural regression, PDM) to determine where and why they break down or excel. Also, using the same artificial data, simultaneously test regression, especially linear, along with the various threshold models.
- 3. Remove from further consideration the $\lambda(96)$ and $\lambda(98)$ critical score criteria in the decomposition phase of the model.
- 4. Test the PDM model, using the entire FATJUNE 1983 data set as the training set and the entire FATJUNE 1984 data set as the testing set, or vice versa.
- 5. Use winter data for a set of experiments to determine if the results are similar to that of the summer season.
- 6. Use a night-time data set (0000 GMT) in the North Atlantic area to test the expected deterioration of all schemes relative to daytime conditions.

APPENDIX A

A DISCUSSION OF THE STATISTICAL PROCEDURES PROPOSED BY PREISENDORFER (1984) FOR THE FORECASTING OF ATMOSPHERIC MARINE HORIZONTAL VISIBILITY USING MODEL OUTPUT STATISTICS

I. INTRODUCTION

The following discussion is based upon an unpublished note by Preisendorfer (1984). The note develops the Principal Discriminant Method (PDM) of forecasting and suggests how to link the output of numerical weather prediction model output parameters with observed fields to produce model output statistics (MOS) prediction schemes. The application of his methodology to MOS forecasting is as follows:

- 1. Generate suitably lagged predictand/predictor pairs of data. The predictors are drawn from the United States Navy Fleet Numerical Oceanography Center's Navy Operational Global Atmospheric Prediction System (NOGAPS) model output. The predictands are drawn from synoptic ship visibility observations provided by the Naval Oceanography Command Detachment, Asheville, North Carolina.
- 2. Separate the predictand data into visibility categories. Construct predictand/predictor pairs based on the predictand visibility category values. Partition the space of predictor values into category subsets.
- 3. Fit a probability density function to the category subsets of predictor space. This task is facilitated by using a succession of principal component analyses of the category sets in predictor space.
- 4. Based on the probability density functions for the training set, find the potential class errors, PAO, PA1.

- 5. Based on the probability density functions and utilizing testing set data, find the actual class errors, AO, A1.
- 6. Pick as the first predictor the one with the smallest averaged P-value (a measure of separation between two probability density functions) and largest PAO value.
- 7. Correlate a potential predictor with the set of already selected predictors, selecting as the next predictor the one which is least correlated with the already-selected set.
- 8. Repeat steps 1-5 and 7 until all predictors are chosen.

II. SINGLE PREDICTOR STAGE

A. THE PREDICTOR/PREDICTAND PAIR *

For each individual data point I (I=1,NTRN, the number of points in the training set) there is a predictand value NTRPY(I) and its corresponding predictor values TRNPX(I,KX) where KX=1,KP, the total number of predictors under consideration. For this study, the NTRPY(I)'s represent visibility while the TRNPX(I,KX) may be, e.g., the vapor pressure at 925 mb, or surface moisture flux, etc.

B. THE DISCRIMINANT SET

The discriminant diagram, Fig. 2a, for the data, shows histograms indicating to which predictand category a given

^{*}The notation herein follows that of the corresponding computer code.

predictor value is assigned. Thus the triangles are for category 1, circles for category 2, squares for category 3. In Fig. 2b, these histograms are separated vertically to form the discriminant set. As the points in the data set are considered (i.e., as I changes), the TRNPX(I,KX) value moves irregularly about on the horizontal axis while the corresponding NTRPY(I) moves similarly among the three levels of the vertical axis now occupying category 1, then category 3, and so on. A point pair is shown in an instantaneous position in Fig. 2b. There are NTRN such pairs in the dependent (training) discriminant set and NTST such pairs in the independent (testing) discriminant set. The diagram in Fig. 2b stands for either of these two discriminant sets.

C. CATEGORY SUBSETS OF PREDICTOR SPACE

Looking at the discriminant set (Fig. 2b), notice the subset of predictor points associated with category one. This is XCAT1(I1,KX), the rightmost pairs of points on the first level (which is simply a copy of the horizontal axis). Similarly, XCAT2(I2,KX) contains the middle pairs and XCAT3(I3,KX) the leftmost pairs. Each predictor point of the training set is assigned to a predictand in a particular category. Thus predictors corresponding to the training predictand values in categories 1,2 or 3 are assigned to XCAT1, XCAT2 or XCAT3 respectively. I1, I2 and I3 represent

the index of values in the respective categories. KX identifies the predictor (e.g., vapor pressure at 925 mb., etc.).

D. FITTING THE PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTION

For this study, the Gaussian probability density function (PDF) was chosen to be fitted to the category subsets of the predictor space. However, one might consider using other PDF's if they were more suitable for a given data set.

The one dimensional Gaussian PDF for category J is: $PHIJ = (2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}*(SIGJ)^{-1}*EXP(-0.5((X-AVGJ)**2/VARJ)$

where J=1,2,3, and

AVGJ=average

SIGJ=standard deviation

VARJ=variance

of the set of points defined by XCATJ(IJ, KX), IJ=1, NXJ for each predictor indexed by KX. The fitted curves may appear as in Fig. 2c.

E. CLASS ERRORS

An indication of how well a prediction method is doing is to count the number of predictions that are correct (zero-class errors) and the number of predictions that are off by one category (one-class errors). This is done two ways. The potential zero-and one-class errors, PAO and PA1, are determined using the probability functions fitted to the

category subsets of the training set. The actual zero-and one-class errors, AO and A1, are determined using the testing set.

1. Finding the probabilities

Form the array

ANU(M,J)=PHIJ(TRNPX(M,KX)), KX fixed,

where J=1,2,3

TRNPX is the training set function which assigns to (M,KX), a predictor value

M=1,...,NTRN the indexes of points in the training set KX=1,...,KP the set of predictors' indexes

Let

$$SNU(M) = \sum_{J=1}^{3} ANU(M,J)$$

and define the probabilities:

PRB(M,J) = ANU(M,J) / SNU(M).

2. Finding PAO, PA1

Find the maximum of the set of probabilities PRB(M,J),J=1,3. Let this be PRB(M,J(M)) for each M=1,NTRN. For example, if of PRB(M,1), PRB(M,2) and PRB(M,3), the maximum value occurs for PRB(M,2), then J(M)=2. In practice, this would result in predicting category 2. Then define

$$PAO = \frac{1}{NTRN} \sum_{M=1}^{NTRN} PRB(M, J(M))$$

$$PA1 = \frac{1}{NTRN} \sum_{M=1}^{NTRN} [APRB(M,J(M)) + APRB(M,J(M)+2)]$$

$$PA2 = 1 - (PAO + PA1)$$

where APRB(M,1)=0

APRB(M,2)=PRB(M,1)

APRB(M,3)=PRB(M,2)

APRB(M,4)=PRB(M,3)

APRB(M, 5) = 0

The APRB arrays allow for easier calculation of PA1 since array indexing does not allow for PRB(M,0) terms, for example.

The higher the PAO values and the lower the PA1 values, the potentially better the predictor PX(I,KX) may predict PY(I). Therefore, a potentially good predictand-predictor pair has large PAO and small PA1 values.

3. Finding AO, A1

A0 and A1 are the actual zero- and one-class errors produced by the model when the predictor values of the testing set are given to the previously established probability density functions, i.e., the PHIJ's. Using the same strategy as for PAO, PA1 make a prediction for the predictand value and then compare it with the actual predictand value from the testing set. With each correct prediction or one-class error, the totals of A0 or A1 increase by one unit, respectively:

A0=(1/NTST)(TOTAL ZERO-CLASS ERRORS)
A1=(1/NTST)(TOTAL ONE-CLASS ERRORS)

F. SCREENING AND RANKING CATEGORY SUBSETS

1. Separability of Category Subsets

Unless the category subsets are well separated from each other, the predictions will not have much skill. As a measure of separability, the P-statistic of each distinct pair of categories is found for each predictor using BMDP Statistical Software program P7D [University of California, 1983]. For the three-category case at hand, this provides three P-values which are then averaged to provide a single mean P-value for each predictor. These are then ranked smallest to largest: the smaller the value the better separated are the data heaps in the category subsets. The first chosen predictor is thus the one with the smallest mean P-value. (Other measures of separability exist. See, e.g., the potential predictability (PP) measure in Preisendorfer (1983a).

2. PAO scores

In the event that more than one predictor has the smallest mean P-value, then the first predictor is chosen by selecting from among those predictors the one with the largest PAO score.

^{*}Unless category set separation is present, it is unlikely that any method of prediction of the given predictand from the given predictors will be skillful. It is this feature of the prediction problem that discriminant methods, such as the present one, isolate most clearly: if category probability density curves are well separated and the training set is representative of the data set, then high forecast skill is assured.

III. MULTIPLE PREDICTOR STAGE

A. CORRELATIONAL SCREENING OF PREDICTORS

Suppose we have K-1 predictors selected, where K=2,..,KP and KP is the total number of predictors. Let the selected predictors be TRNPX(I,KX), KX=1,..,K-1. So, if there is one chosen predictor we have TRNPX(I,1), I=1,NTRN. Let the remaining set of predictors be denoted TRNPW(I,KW), KW=1,...,L where L=KP + 1 - K. Let CORR[KW,KX] denote the correlation between the KXth chosen predictor and the KWth unchosen predictor. Since the correlation is a measure of the distance between a chosen and an unchosen predictor, we are looking for the smallest value of the correlation since a smaller value indicates that the unchosen predictor is farther from (i.e., less dependent on) a chosen predictor.

Therefore, let

 $C(KW) = \max_{KX=1,K-1} \{ABS CORR [KW,KX]\}$

This gives (an inverse) measure of the distance of the KWth potential predictor from the set of chosen predictors. The smaller C(KW) is, the larger the distance. The next predictor chosen for consideration is the one with the smallest C(KW) value.

B. THE K-DIMENSIONAL DISCRIMINANT SET

Once the Kth predictor is added, there are two sets, one training and one testing, of K predictors in the form of a vector

 $\underline{\text{VECPX}}(I) = (PX(I,1), \dots, PX(I,K))$

in the Euclidean K-space E_K . As index I changes, $\underline{VECPX}(I)$ moves about in E_K , as does the predictand array NTRPY(I). The set of all ordered pairs ($\underline{VECPX}(I)$, NTRPY(I)), I=1,NTRN is the present discriminant training set and is a general (k-stage) version of section II.B. above. ($\underline{VECTS}(I)$,NTSPY(I)),I=1,NTST is the discriminant testing set.

C. CATEGORY SUBSETS OF PREDICTOR SPACE

As in II.C. above, category subsets of the K-dimensional predictor training vector are formed, based on the value of the associated predictand value. The net result is three subsets of $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{K}}$ defined by the three swarms of points

 $\{XCATJ(I): I=1,NXJ\}$

where J=1,2,3, and NXJ is the number of points in the subset. Here $\underline{XCATJ}(I) = [XCATJ(1,I),\ldots,XCATJ(K,I)]^T$. On these three subsets of E_K we fit the K-dimensional Gaussian PDF's. However, these data swarms are not usually distributed normally which brings about the next step.

- D. BINARY PRINCIPAL DECOMPOSITION OF THE CATEGORY SUBSETS Let $X_J = \{XCATJ(I): I=1,\ldots,NXJ\}$, J=1,2,3, be the Jth category subset of E_K . A general picture of X_J for the case K=2 is in Fig. 3. The shape of X_J may possibly be elongated and curvilinear. Since the most variance of the subset is along the unit vector \underline{e}_1 at 0, this suggests that we form a principal component decomposition of the swarm X_J of NXJ points in E_K where J=1,2,3. The principal component decomposition is well-suited to find this direction \underline{e}_1 of greatest variance. This is done in the following steps.
- 1. Recall that in III.C., the data sets forming the predictors were standardized. Next, go on to find the centroid $\underline{\text{AMEANJ}}$ of each $\underline{\text{XCATJ}}$ in $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{K}}$. This is the centroid point shown as 0 in Fig. 3. By definition,

$$\underline{\text{AMEANJ}} = \frac{1}{\text{NXJ}} \sum_{I=1}^{\text{NXJ}} \text{XCATJ}(I)$$

The Lth component of AMEANJ is

AMEANJ(L) =
$$\frac{1}{NXJ} \sum_{i=1}^{NXJ} XCATJ(I,L)$$

where $L=1,\ldots,K$.

2. Form the covariance matrix \underline{SJ} of the X_J data swarm. Thus, first center the points $\underline{XCATJ}(I)$ on the mean \underline{AMEANJ} of X_J :

$$XJ(I) \equiv XCATJ(I) - AMEANJ, I=1,...,NXJ$$

i.e., in component form

$$XJ(I,L)=XCATJ(I,L)$$
 - AMEANJ(L)

$$I=1,\ldots,NXJ; L=1,\ldots,K$$

Then the entry SJ(L,M) of \underline{SJ} in its Lth row and Mth column

is:

$$SJ(L,M) = \frac{1}{NXJ-1} \sum_{I=1}^{NXJ} XJ(I,L)XJ(I,M)$$
 for L,M=1,...,K and for categories J=1,2,3.

- 3. Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix SJ(L,M). Sort the eigenvalues from high to low, and arrange their corresponding eigenvectors similarly.
 - 4. Compute A(I), the principal components from $A(J) = \sum_{i=1}^{NX,i} XJ(I,L)e_{1}(L)$

where $\underline{e}_1 = [e_1^{(1)}, \dots, e_1^{(NXJ)}]^T$ is the eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue of the data swarm currently under consideration.

The following steps describe how the above information is used in decomposing the data swarms to a terminal state for use in the multi-predictor PDF's. See Fig. 3 for level 0 of the splitting procedure.

- 5. Decision to split subsets at level 1:
- a. For K predictors and a set $X_J(a_1,\ldots,a_\ell)$ of n_J points:
- 1) If $n_J \le K+1$, where K=number chosen predictors, set $T_J(a_1,\ldots,a_\ell)=X_J(a_1,\ldots,a_\ell)$. This set is terminal because any further splits of the set will lead to degeneracy. In fact, if $n_J < K$, set PHIJ=0 for this set since in this case only trivial covariance matrices will be found.
 - 2) If $n_{,T} > K+1$, go to b.
- b. Perform principal component analysis (PCA) of the point swarm ${\rm X_J}$ (a_1 ,..., a_2) in ${\rm E_K}$. Determine the eigenvalues

 ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_k , where ℓ_1 is the largest and ℓ_k is the smallest. Let $\ell = \sum_{i=1}^k \ell_i$. Compute $\lambda = \ell_1/(\ell_1 - \ell_1)$. Go to c.

is significantly large. That is, randomly generate a duplicate of the data swarm under consideration, normalize the data and find the centroid, covariance matrix and eigenvalues. Let $\ell_1^{(i)} \ge \ell_2^{(i)} \ge \ldots \ge \ell_k^{(i)}$ be the ordered set of eigenvalues resulting from the ith Monte Carlo experiment, i=1,...,100. Let $\ell_1^{(i)} = \sum_{j=1}^k \ell_j^{(i)}$ and set $\lambda(i) = \ell_1^{(i)}/(\ell_1^{(i)} - \ell_1^{(i)})$. Arrange the $\lambda(i)$ in ascending order, so that, after relabeling, $\lambda(1) \le \lambda(2) \le \ldots \le \lambda(96) \le \ldots \lambda(100)$.

- 1) If $\ell_k=0$, for any J=1,2,3 set PHIJ=0.
- 2) If $\lambda < \lambda(96)$, set $T_J(a_1, \dots, a_\ell) = X_J(a_1, \dots, a_\ell)$. This is the terminal case. Go to the next swarm awaiting decomposition.
 - 3) If $\lambda(96) \leq \lambda$, go to d.
 - d. A split is performed by setting

 $\begin{array}{lll} \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{J}}(\boldsymbol{a}_{1},\ldots,\boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}) = \{\underline{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{I}): & \underline{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{I}) \in \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{J}}(\boldsymbol{a}_{1},\ldots,\boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}) \text{ and } \mathbf{A}_{1}(\mathbf{I}) \leq 0\} \\ \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{J}}(\boldsymbol{a}_{1},\ldots,\boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}) = \{\underline{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{I}): & \underline{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{I}) \in \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{J}}(\boldsymbol{a}_{1},\ldots,\boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}) \text{ and } \mathbf{A}_{1}(\mathbf{I}) > 0\} \\ \text{where } \underline{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{I}) \text{ is a point } (\mathbf{k}\text{-tuple}) \text{ of numbers in } \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{K}}. & \text{When} \\ \text{splits are completed on all levels, we have a set of} \\ \text{terminal nodes } \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{J}}(\boldsymbol{a}_{1},\ldots,\boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}). & \text{See Fig. 4.} \end{array}$

E. FITTING PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTIONS TO EACH TERMINAL NODE

Denote the terminal nodes by 'T $_{\rm J}({\rm I})$ ' which is the name of the Ith terminal node found by successive splits of X $_{\rm I}$ in

E. (Note: if the terminal node results from a degeneracy or from the case ℓ =0, then no further work is done since PHIJ=0 in those cases for all points.) Establishing the following notation:

AVGJ(I)=centroid of the terminal swarm of points $T_J(I)$ $\underline{C}_J(I)$ =KxK covariance matrix of $T_J(I)$ DET $_J(I)$ =determinant of $\underline{C}_J(I)$ where

DET_J(I)= $\prod_{r=1}^{k} \ell_r$, ℓ_r = eigenvalues of $\underline{C}_J(I)$.

Then the required probability density function is

$$\text{PHIJ}(\text{I},\underline{\text{X}}) = [2\pi]^*[\text{DET}_{\text{J}}(\text{I})]^{-\frac{1}{2}} * \text{EXP}[-0.5*(\text{X-AVGJ}(\text{I}))^{\text{T}}\underline{\text{C}}_{\text{J}}^{-1}(\text{I})(\underline{\text{X}}-\text{AVGJ}(\text{I}))]$$

where I runs over all terminal nodes associated with category subset $\mathbf{X}_{,\mathbf{I}}$

 \underline{X} is an arbitrary point in $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{K}}$

 \underline{X} - $\underline{AVGJ}(I)$ is a k-component column vector in E_K , 'T' denoting transpose

 $\underline{C}_J^{-1}(I)$ is the inverse of the covariance matrix $\underline{C}_J(I)$. This results in a set of three probability distributions PHIJ (I,\underline{X}) , J=1,2,3 and forms the present model over each X_J , after suitably assembling these PHIJ (I,\underline{X}) values.

F. ASSEMBLING THE PHIJ(I, \underline{X}) ON EACH X_J

Let $n_J(I)$ be the number of points in $T_J(I)$. Then $\sum_{I=1}^{M_J} n_J(I) = \text{NXJ, the number of points in } X_J$ where M is the number of terminal nodes arising in X_J . Define

$$a_{J}(I) = n_{J}(I)/NXJ$$
.

Then $\sum_{I=1}^{M_J} a_J(I)=1$. Set $PHIJ(\underline{X})=\sum_{I=1}^{M_J} a_J(I)PHIJ(I,\underline{X})$ for J=1,2,3, \underline{X} in E_K . This is the desired model.

G. CLASS ERRORS

These are made from the new versions of PRB(M, J(M)) computed as in section II.E. above.

H. FINAL SCREENING TESTS FOR CANDIDATE PREDICTOR PX(I,K)

- 1. Using BMDP program P3D compute the P-value for each of the three possible pairs of PDF's for the three categories. Average these values and find \bar{P} .
- 2. Compare the new PAO and PA1 values with those found for the previous run with one less predictor.
 - 3. Compare the new PAO to the null hypothesis.

Accept PX(I,K), the Kth candidate predictor, if each of the following hold:

- *a. P≤.05
 - b. PAO(K-1)<PAO(K), PA1(K)≤PA1(K-1)</p>
 - c. PAO>PAO(null)

Here PAO(null) is the upper limit of the 95% confidence interval, as found in Appendix B.

If these conditions are not fully met, return to section III.A. and select the next potential predictor PW(I,KW) in line, until all potential predictors have been considered.

^{*}In the original version of PDM [Preisendorfer, 1984], this step uses the potential predictability (PP) criterion.

Once the model is finished, that is all potential predictors have been considered, then compute the actual AO(I) and A1(I) scores using the testing set.

IV. EXAMPLE

An example is helpful in understanding how the method works in practice. The results presented here were obtained by applying the method to a set of 200 points taken from the Area 2, TAU-24 data set. The example will extend through one level of the multi-predictor stage, i.e., through the selection and acceptance of a second potential predictor.

A. SELECTION OF FIRST PREDICTOR

The first step towards identifying the first predictor is to run the BMDP Statistical Software program P7D [University of California, 1983], to find the average P-value for each predictor. In this case, there were several predictors for which the average P-value was 0.0. Therefore, (see note 2 of II.F.) the results showing the PAO, PA1, AO and A1 scores for each predictor (if used as the first predictor) had to be consulted before the choice was made. The chosen predictor was E850 because of all the predictors with an average P-value of 0.0, it had the largest PAO score (.51).

58

Predictor E850 was then correlated with the remaining potential predictors. The potential second predictor chosen was DEDP because it had the smallest correlation coefficient when correlated with E850.

B. THE SECOND PREDICTOR STAGE

With the first predictor chosen and a candidate second predictor ready for consideration, it was necessary to begin the principal component analysis (PCA) of the data swarm in anticipation of creating the probability density functions.

When broken into the three categories corresponding to the visibility groupings, the categorized data sets contained the following numbers of points:

XCAT1--14

XCAT2--14

XCAT3--172

The decomposition of the first category subset (XCAT1) will be explained in detail, since it is small. Fig. 5 presents a pictorial representation of the following steps in the K=2 (predictor) stage:

- 1. Consider XCAT1 first. For this swarm, $\lambda > \lambda(96)$. Therefore, the swarm must be split using PCA. The two new sets are $X_1(0)$ with 6 points and $X_1(1)$ with 8 points.
- 2. Consider the swarm $X_1(0)$. Since $\lambda < \lambda(96)$ in this case, the set is terminal, i.e., $T_1 = X_1(0)$. No further decomposition is performed on this set.

- 3. Consider the swarm $X_1(1)$. Here, $\lambda > \lambda(96)$, so the swarm is further decomposed into $X_1(10)$ with 5 points and $X_1(11)$ with 3 points.
- 4. Next $X_1(10)$ is considered. Since $\lambda > \lambda(96)$, this swarm is further decomposed into $X_1(100)$ with 4 points and $X_1(101)$ with 1 point.
- 5. Next $X_1(11)$ is considered. Since this swarm has only 3 values, and 3 K+1, this swarm is terminal. Thus, $T_2=X_1(11)$.
- 6. The data swarm $X_1(100)$ with 4 points is found to have $\lambda > \lambda(96)$ and therefore, it is terminal. Set $T_3 = X_1(100)$.
- 7. The set X_1 (101) has only 1 point. Since 1 K, this set is degenerate. Although $T_4 = X_1$ (101), for this terminal set PHIJ=0 for all values of X. Therefore, it is not considered when building the probability density functions.

Thus for XCAT1, there are three useable terminal sets. Similarly, there are two for XCAT2 and fourteen for XCAT3.

Once the PHIJ's are formed and probabilities computed, potential class errors are computed and compared to the potential errors found at the one predictor level. The new PAO (.67) is greater than at the one-predictor level (.51) and the new PAI (.27) is lower than at the one predictor level (.39). With part of the selection criteria satisfied, the average P-value using both predictors was found using BMDP Statistical Software program P3D [University of California, 1983]. Since the average P-value (0) met the

significance criteria of being less than .05, a second requirement towards acceptance of the second predictor was met. Since PAO (.67) was greater than PAO(null)=.40, the third criteria was met and the second predictor DEDP was accepted.

APPENDIX B

NULL HYPOTHESIS SIGNIFICANCE TESTING

Following the work of Diunizio (1984a), Mr. Paul Lowe of NEPRF proposed that statistics such as AO and threat scores could be assigned normal probability distributions and, therefore, be subject to Null Hypothesis significance testing criteria. The assignment of the normal probability distributions is based upon the Central Limit Theorem.

Diunizio (1984b) explored this technique and presented the subsequent results. This appendix presents the equations used in this study for significance testing.

When using three visibility categories, the null hypothesis is that the percentage correct will be .333 if only chance is involved. Using a 95% confidence test, we want to create an interval around the null hypothesis value such that values outside are considered to be significant.

Let
$$P_0 = .333$$

n=number of values in data set

$$z_{a/2} = 1.96$$
 for 95% confidence interval $(1 - a = .95, \therefore a/2 = .025)$

then
$$AA=P_0 - z_{a/2} [P_0 (1 - P_0)/n]$$

$$BB=P_0 + z_{a/2} [P_0 (1 - P_0)/n]$$

where AA is the lower limit and BB is the upper limit of the confidence interval.

APPENDIX C

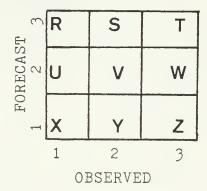
WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANIZATION HORIZONTAL SURFACE VISIBILITY CODES

CODE	VISIBILITY(KM)
90	<0.05
91	0.05
92	0.2
93	0.5
94	1.0
95	2.0
96	4.0
97	10.0
98	20.0
99	50.0 or more

Note: The values given are discrete values (i.e., not ranges). If the observed visibility is between two reportable distances as given in the table, the code figure of the lower reportable distance shall reported.

APPENDIX D

SKILL AND THREAT SCORES, DEFINITIONS (Karl, 1984)



 $Total = R + S + T + U + V + W + \cdot X + Y \qquad Z$

P1 = (R+U+X)/Total P3 = (T+W+Z)/Total

P2 = (S+V+Y)/Total PN = greatest of P1, P2 or P3

Raw Scores

A0 = fraction correct = zero-class error = (X+V+T)/total

A1 = one-class error = (U+S+Y+W)/Total

A2 = two-class error = (R+Z)/Total

AO + A1 + A2 = 1

TS1 = Threat score for visibility category I

= X/(R+U+X+Y+Z)

TS2 Threat score for visibility category II

= V/(S+V+Y+U+W)

TS12 = Threat score for visibility categories I and II = (X+V)/(Total-T)

TS12 is designed to represent the skill of forecasting visibility categories I and II as separate categories, rather than their skill as a combined category, which would be (U+V+X+Y)/Total-T).

Adjusted scores

AAO = (AO-PN)/(1-PN)

ATS1 = (TS1-P1)/(1-P1)

ATS2 = (TS2-P2)/(1-P2)

ATS12 = (TS12-(P1+P2))/(1-(P1+P2))

APPENDIX E

NOGAPS PREDICTOR PARAMETERS AVAILABLE FOR NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN EXPERIMENTS

I. Area: North Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean Sea

Model output time: 1200GMT (TAU-00, TAU-24, TAU-48) 15 May--7 July 1983

Legend: * Parameters which were not used because they were considered physically unrelated to marine visibility.

** Parameters which were not used due to loss of significant digits during transfer from tape to mass storage.

*** Parameters existing for TAU-24 and TAU-48 only.

Α.	Model output parameter	Descriptive name of parameter
	D1000	1000 mb geopotential height
	D925	925 mb geopotential height
	D850	850 mb geopotential height
	D700	700 mb geopotential height
	D500	500 mb geopotential height
	D400 *	400 mb geopotential height
	D300 *	300 mb geopotential height
	D250 *	250 mb geopotential height
	TAIR	Surface air temperature
	T1000	1000 mb temperature

Т925	925 mb temperature
T700	700 mb temperature
T500	500 mb temperature
T400 *	400 mb temperature
T300 *	300 mb temperature
T250 *	250 mb temperature
EAIR	Surface vapor pressure
E1000	1000 mb vapor pressure
E925	925 mb vapor pressure
E850	850 mb vapor pressure
E7.00	700 mb vapor pressure
E500	500 mb vapor pressure
UBLW	Boundary layer zonal wind component
U1000	1000 mb zonal wind component
U925	925 mb zonal wind component
U850	850 mb zonal wind component
U700	700 mb zonal wind component
U500	500 mb zonal wind component
U400 *	400 mb zonal wind component
U300 *	300 mb zonal wind component
U250 *	250 mb zonal wind component
VBLW	Boundary layer meridional wind
	component
V1000	1000 mb meridional wind component
V925	925 mb meridional wind component

V850	850 mb meridional wind component
V700	700 mb meridional wind component
V 500	500 mb meridional wind component
V400 *	400 mb meridional wind component
V300 *	300 mb meridional wind component
V250 *	250 mb meridional wind component
VOR925 **	925 mb vorticity
VOR500 **	500 mb vorticity
PS	Surface pressure
SMF	Surface moisture flux
PBLD	Planetary boundary-layer depth
STRTFQ	Percent stratus frequency
STRTTH	Stratus thickness
SHF	Surface heat flux
ENTRN	Entrainment at top of marine
	boundary-layer
DRAG **	Drag coefficient (C_D)
PRECIP ***	Total amount (mm) of model
	precipitation in the last six hours
SHWRS ***	Total amount (mm) of model precipita-
	tion associated with cumulus convection
	in the last six hours
INSTAB ***	Boundary layer inversion instability

DIV925 *** 925 mb divergence

B. Derived Parameters

DTDP Vertical gradient of temperature

(1000-925 mb)

DEDP Vertical gradient of vapor pressure

(1000-850 mb)

DUDP Vertical gradient of zonal wind

(1000-850 mb)

DVDP Vertical gradient of meridional wind

(1000-850 mb)

RH Surface relative humidity

TV Virtual temperature

DDVDP Vertical gradient of geopotential

height (1000-850 mb)

DVRTDP ** Vertical gradient of vorticity

(500-925 mb)

DUUPDP Vertical gradient of zonal wind

(300-500 mb)

DVUPDP Vertical gradient of meridional wind

(300-500 mb)

ESUM Sum of vapor pressures

(1000 & 850 mb)

EPRD Product of vapor pressures

(1000 & 850 mb)

EDIF Difference of vapor pressures

(1000-850 mb)

APPENDIX F

TABLES

A summary of 1200 GMT observations, 15 May--7 July 1983, North Atlantic Ocean homogeneous areas 2, 3W, 4: TAU-00 TABLE I.

Dependent VISCAT Independent VISCAT I III III III	2 2867 193 219 1503 67 87 798	5 2288 290 189 1053 118 102 536	
		2288	111171
IND	952	756	1507
DEP	1915	1532	3174 1407
Area	2	ME.	77

A summary of 1200 GMT observations, TABLE IT

3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	TABLE II. A SUMMARY OF 1200 GMI OBSELVACIONS, 15 May-7 July 1983, North Atlantic Ocean homogeneous areas 2(A,B,C), 3W, 4: TAU-24	EP IND Total I II III III III III	842 2563 161 198 1362	2(B) 1686 877 2563 156 196 1334 44 85 748	2(c) 1723 840 2563 171 198 1354 54 76 710	3W 1384 683 2067 269 172 943 86 88 509	
DEI 721 727 727	J. J			5 877	3 840	683	7
Area 2(A) 1 2(B) 1 2(C) 1	LAD	ea DEP	2(A) 1721	B) 1686	c) 1723	1384	(

PAU-48.	Independent VISCAT	062	532	328
tions, lantic	endent II	42 87 790	109 98 532	25 183 1328
bserval rth At 2, 3W	Indepe	42	109	25
983, Nos areas	ISCAT	1453	1020	99 410 2538
i 120 uly 19 eneous	ent V	179 226 1453	280 191 1020	410
nmary o ay7 J n homog	Dependent VISCAT	179	280	66
TABLE 111. A summary of 1200 GMT observations, 15 May7 July 1983, North Atlantic Ocean homogeneous areas 2, 3W, 4: TAU-48.	Total	2777	2230	4583
T T T . II	IND	2 1858 919 2777	3W 1491 739 2230	4 3047 1536 4583
TABL	DEP	1858	1491	3047
	Area	8	3W	4

TABLE IV. A summary of 1200 GMT observations, 15 May--7 July 1983, North Atlantic Ocean homogeneous area 2 (Case X, Case Y(A,B,C)): TAU-24.

Independent VISCAT I II	70 772	962 94	44 833	43 838
Dependent VISCAT	214 1507	161 1560	6 1530	5 1527
- '			156	155
Total	2563	2563	2563	2563
IND	842	842	877	881
DEP	1721	1721	1686	1682
Area	2 X	2YA	2YB	2YC

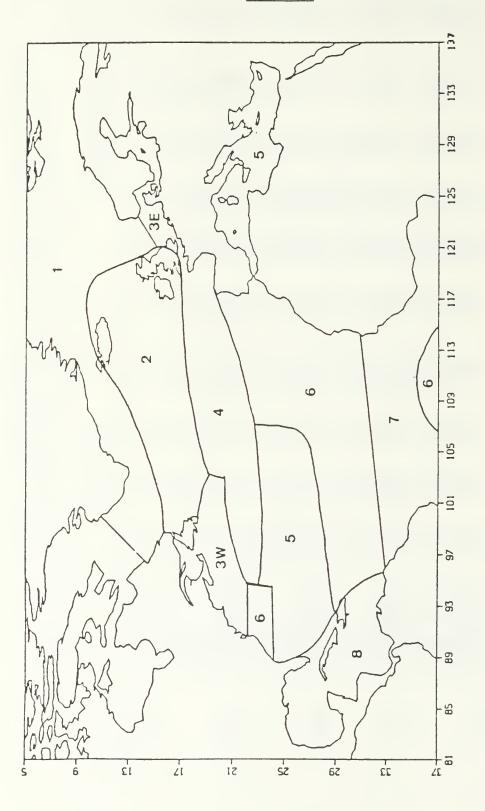
A summary of skill scores obtained for dependent and independent TABLE V.

	data sets methods o geneous a	usin n FAT reas	the June 1	PR [Kar 983 data and 4:	l, 19 a fro TAU-	84; Diun m North 00, TAU-	izio Atlan 24, T	(19 tic AU-)] and PDM ean homo-	PDM omo-	
Area/TAU	Method	A0	DEPEI A1	ENDENT TS1	TS2	TS12	A0	INDE	PEND IS1	ENT TS2	TS12
2/00	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	623	111	29.	0.0	. 19	.80 .77 .59	.28	300	00000	220.
3M/00	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	00000	.01	2999 2008 2008	.91 .92 .84	2999	2660	255	.34 .33 .11	.15 .14 .07	.27 .24 .09
4/00	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	597	2002	.72	.91	.81 .83 .78	.82 .80 .81 .44	35.	.07	15	.15
2/24	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDW A(96) PDM A(98)		11.00.00 00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.00.	20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2	0.0 0.0 .68 .19 .21	23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 2	82 82 74 81 81	1336	22. 22. 20. 20. 20. 20. 20. 20.	0.0 0.1 41.0 0.0	.14 .18 .09
3W/24	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	96.	.03	.31	.81 .81 .64	.86 .87 .31	749. 49. 19.	.17 .26 .26	35	0.11.0	.30

TABLE V. CONT'D

Area/TAU	Method	AO	DEPEI A1	DEPENDENT A1 TS1	TS2	TS12	AO	INI	INDEPENDENT 1 TS1 T	INT TS2	TS12
4/24	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	. 91 . 91 . 57	.12	.04 .53 .37 .05			.86 .81 .54	112	0.07	. 07 . 17 . 14	. 06 . 16 . 13
2/48	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	. 29 . 29 . 26	.12 .02 .14 .34	312		24. 24. 26. 26.	73	.12 .18 .50	.24 .26 .18	0.0 .11 .09	.19
3W/48	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	93 163 184	. 04 40 40 37		.71	.80 .82 .23	9999	.18 .19 .42	33	11.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1	.24 .28 .22 .12
81/17	MAXPROBI MAXPROBII NATREG PDM	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00	03	.79 .81 .79 .04		.83 .78 .10	.81 .77 .80 .33	11.1.5	.20 .16 .03	.16 .16 .09	.17

FIGURES



Homogeneous areas for the North Atlantic Ocean, May, June and July, from Lowe (1984b).

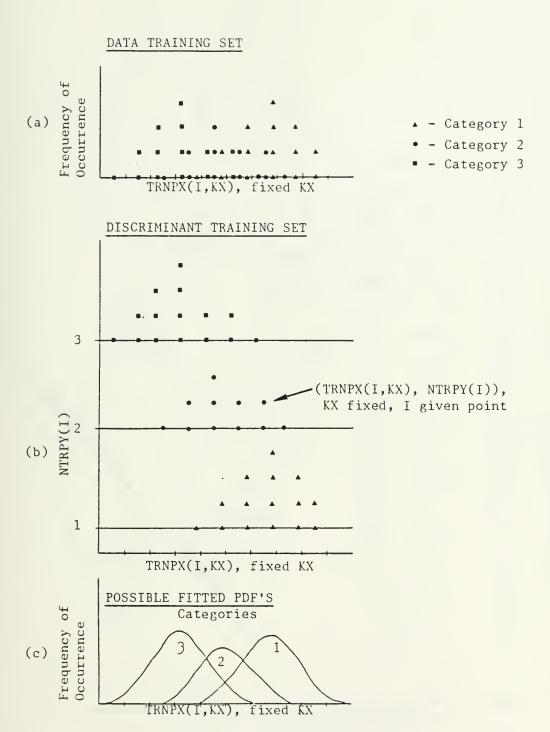


Fig. 2. Distribution diagrams for a sample training set where (a) shows the vertical stacking of observations; (b) shows the (a) data in their category discriminant sets; (c) shows the analytic representation of the data in (a).

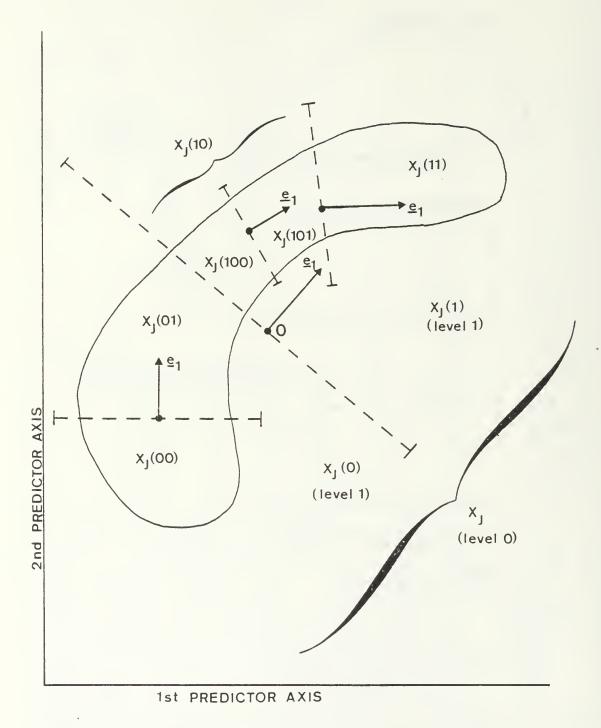
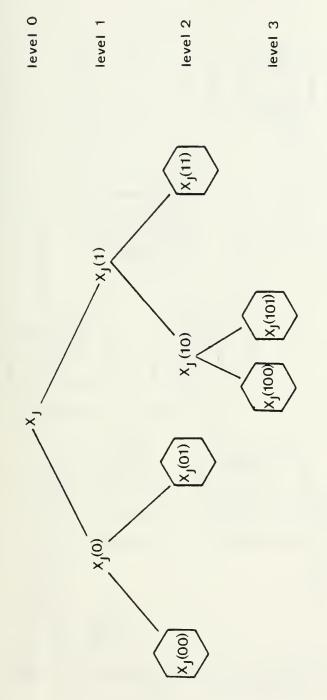


Fig. 3. A general representation of X_{J} in the case of two predictors, from Preisendorfer (1984).



 χ_J is the inital category subset of the J^{th} category, $J^{=1},\dots,Q$, located in E_K (space of K-dimensional predictors) - denotes terminal nodes

Schematic of the binary decomposition of a category subset, from Preisendorfer (1984). 4. Fig.

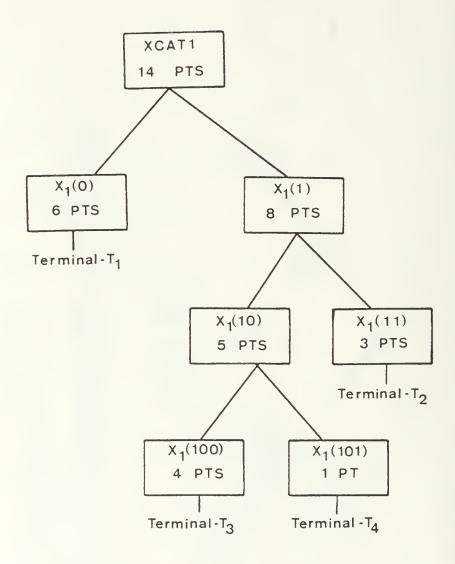
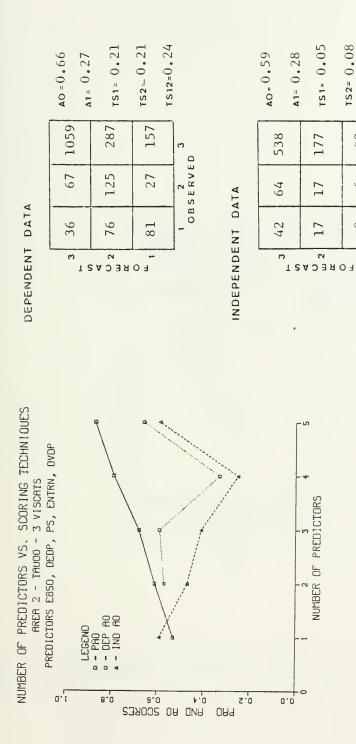


Fig. 5. Schematic of the binary decomposition of a sample set from area 2, TAU-24.



Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-00, PDM model. 9 Fig.

1512=0.06

OBSERVED

83

9

 ∞

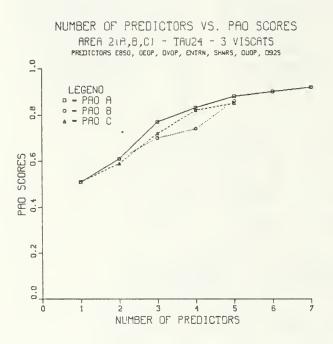


Fig. 7. Comparison of PAO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A,B,C), TAU-24, PDM model.

Fig. 8. Comparison of DEP AO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A,B,C), TAU-24, PDM model.

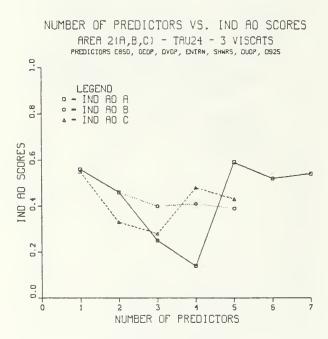
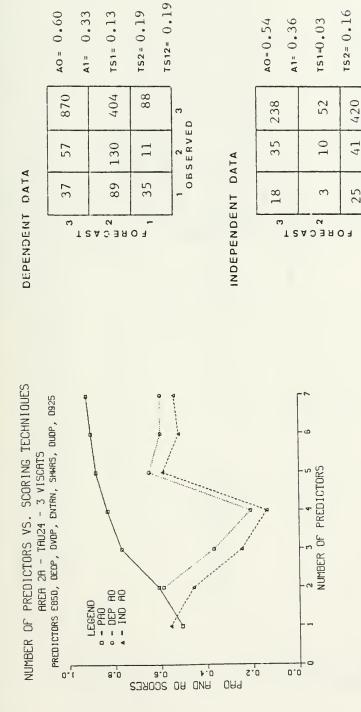


Fig. 9. Comparison of IND AO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A,B,C), TAU-24, PDM model.

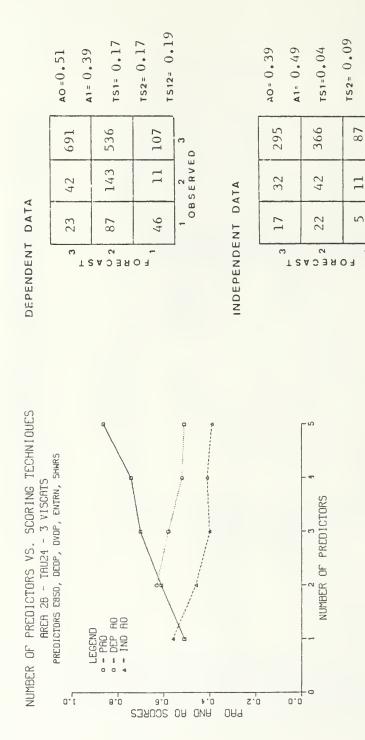


0.33

Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A), TAU-24, PDM model. Fig. 10.

TS12=0.09

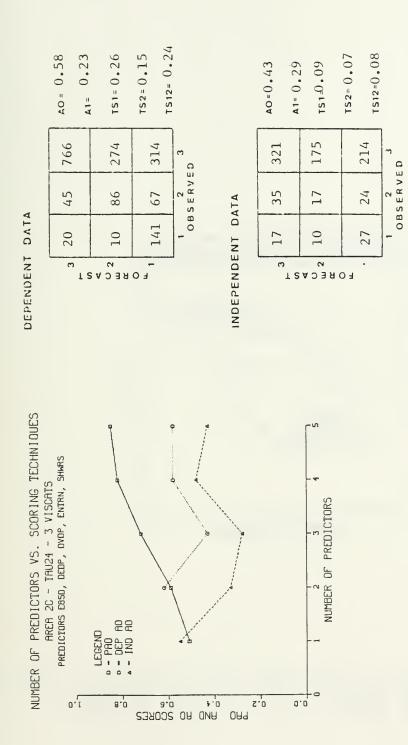
OBSERVED



Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(B), TAU-24, PDM model. Fig. 11.

TS12=0.08

OBSERVED



Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(C), TAU-24, PDM model. Fig. 12.

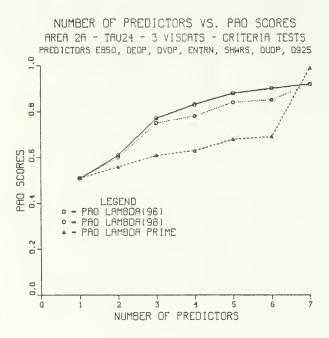


Fig. 13. Comparison of PAO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A), TAU-24, PDM model criteria tests.

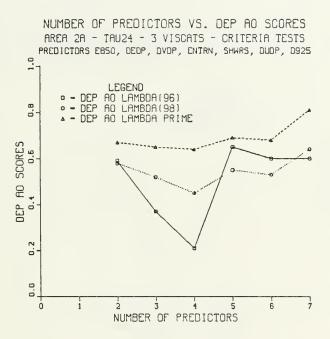


Fig. 14. Comparison of DEP AO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A), TAU-24, PDM model criteria tests.

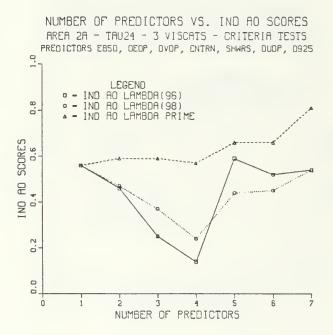
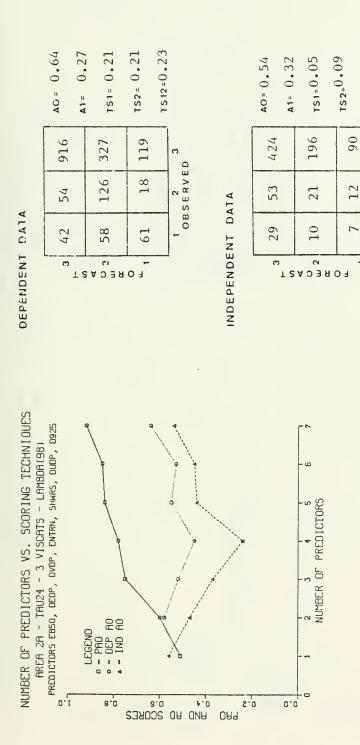


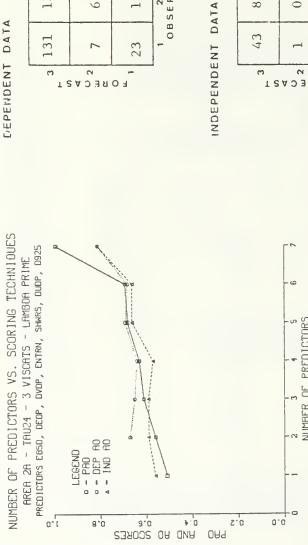
Fig. 15. Comparison of IND AO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A), TAU-24, PDM model criteria tests.



Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A), TAU-24, PDM model lambda (98) criteria test. Fig. 16.

TS12=0.07

OBSERVED



TS12= 0.21

OBSERVED

40= 0.81

683

98

43

c

TS1=0.14

52

65

AO = 0.81A1 = 0.11

1309

132

131

ო

TS2=0.44

TAU-24, PDM model lambda prime criteria test. Fig. 17.

TS12: 0.01 A1= 0.14 TS1= 0.04 TS2=0,0 Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2(A), 27 0 OBSERVED 0 0 2 FORECAST 4 i 3 4 5 NUMBER OF PREDICTORS

AO = .59 A1 = .41 TS1=.19 TS2=.55

657

164

FORECAST

850

20

DEPENDENT DATA

A1 = .53 TS1=.08

357

31

TS2=.44

415

39

FORECAST

OBSERVED

AO = .47

INDEPENDENT DATA

OBSERVED

7

Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-24, Case X, PDM model. 18. Fig.

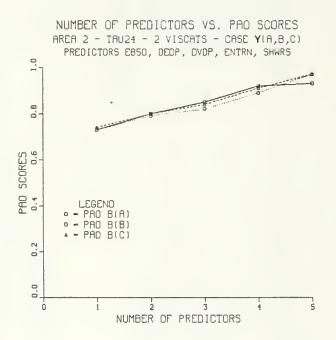


Fig. 19. Comparison of PAO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-24, Case Y(A,B,C), PDM model.

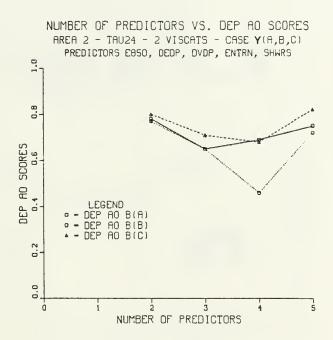


Fig. 20. Comparison of DEP AO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-24, Case Y(A,B,C), PDM model.

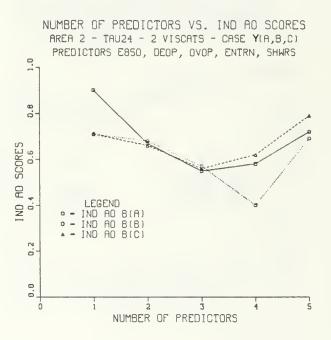
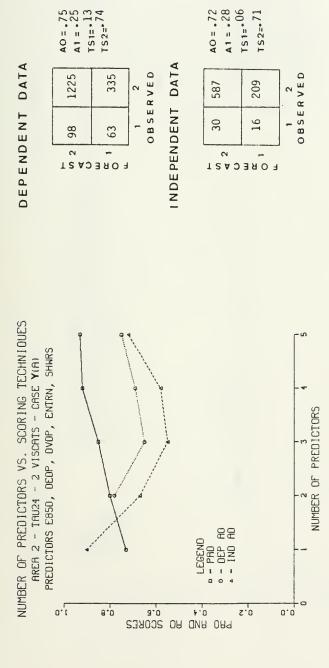
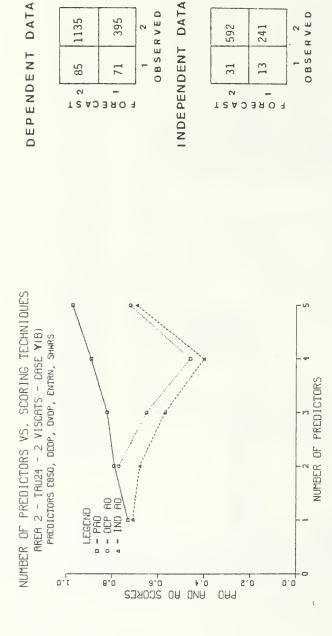


Fig. 21. Comparison of IND AO scores for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-24, Case Y(A,B,C), PDM model.



Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-24 Case Y(A), PDM model. 22. Fig.



TS1=13 TS2=.70

395

A0=72 A1 = 28

1135

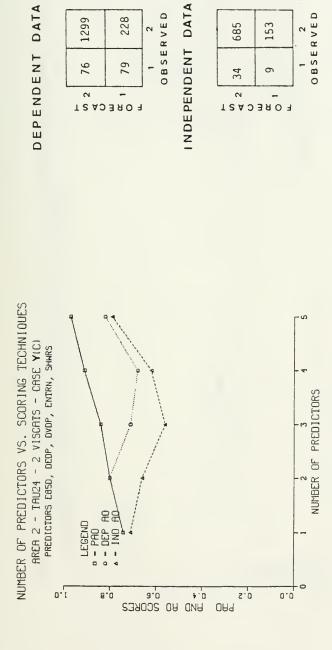
TS1=05 152=•69

241

AO = 69 A1 =. 31

592

Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-24 Case Y(B), PDM model. Fig.

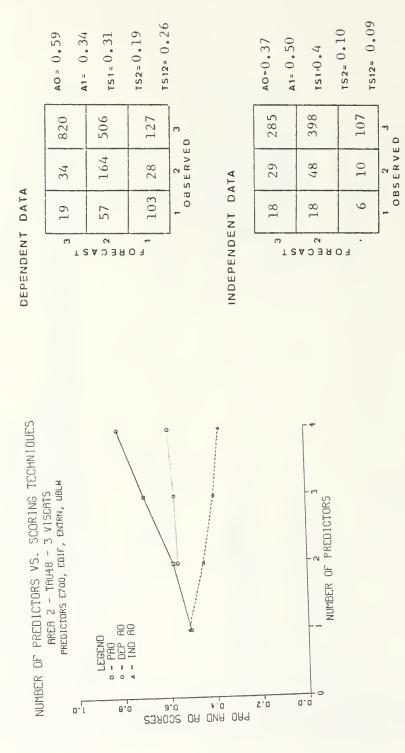


AO = .82 A1 = .18 TS1= .21 TS2= 81 A1 = .21 TS1=.05

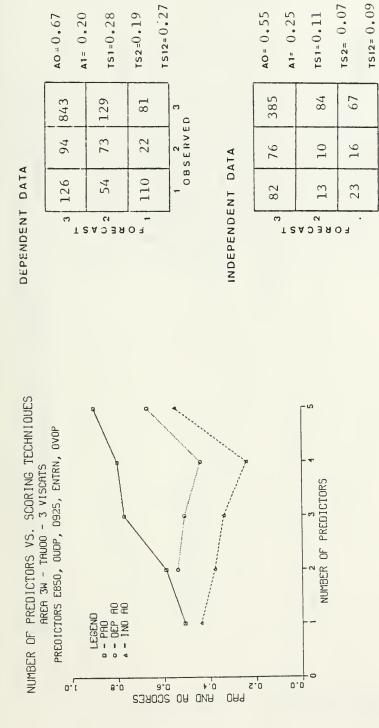
40 = .79

152-79

Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-24 Case Y(C), PDM model. 24. Fig.

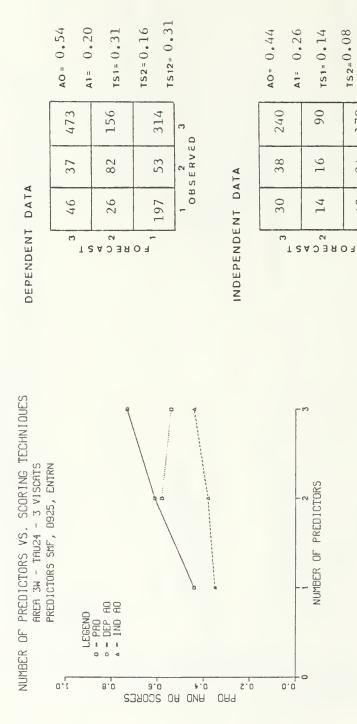


Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 2, TAU-48, PDM model. 25. Fig.



TAU-00, Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 3W, TAU-PDM model. 26. Fig.

OBSERVED



TAU-24, Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 3W, TAU-PDM model. Fig.

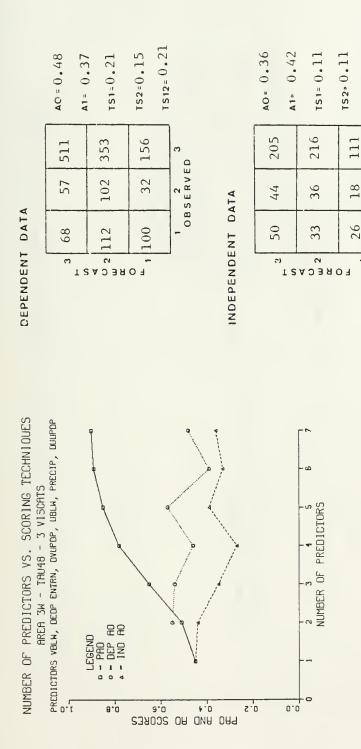
TS12= 0.13

2 OBSERVED

179

34

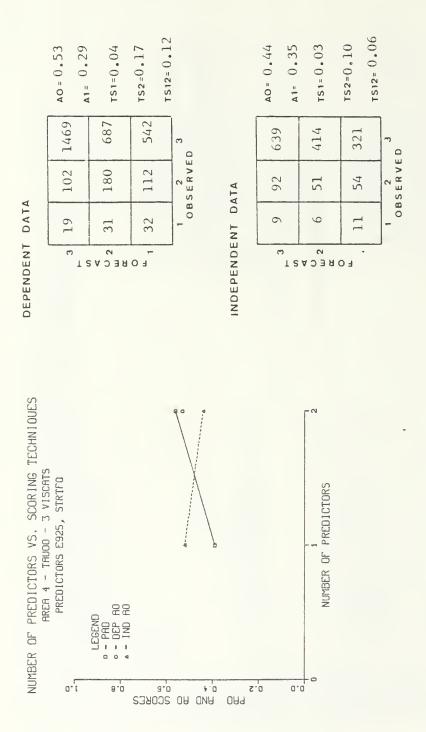
42



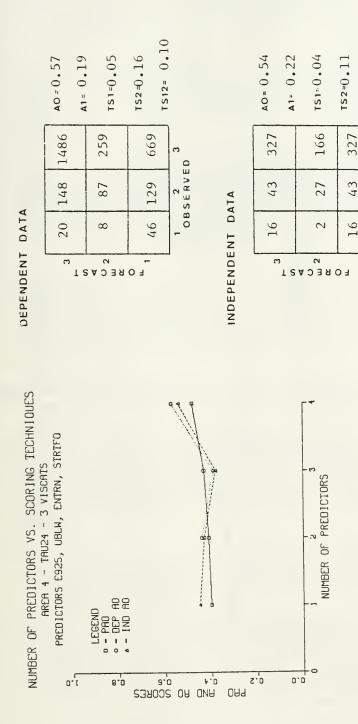
Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 3W, TAU-48, PDM model. 28. Fig.

1512-0.12

OBSERVED



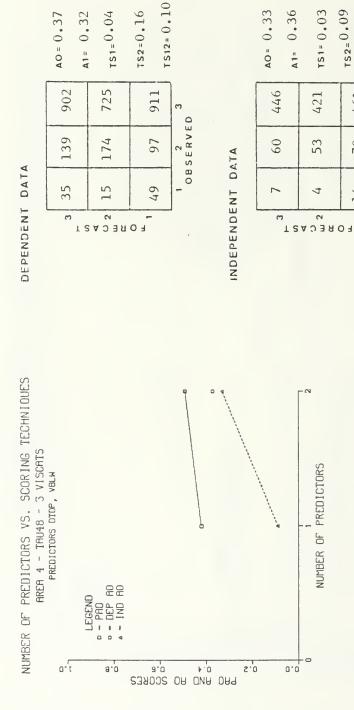
Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 4, TAU-00, PDM model. Fig. 29.



Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 4, TAU-24, PDM model. Fig. 30.

TS12= 0.06

OBSERVED



Skill diagram and contingency table results for FATJUNE 1983, North Atlantic Ocean area 4, TAU-48, PDM model. Fig. 31.

TS12=0.06

OBSERVED

461

70

14

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